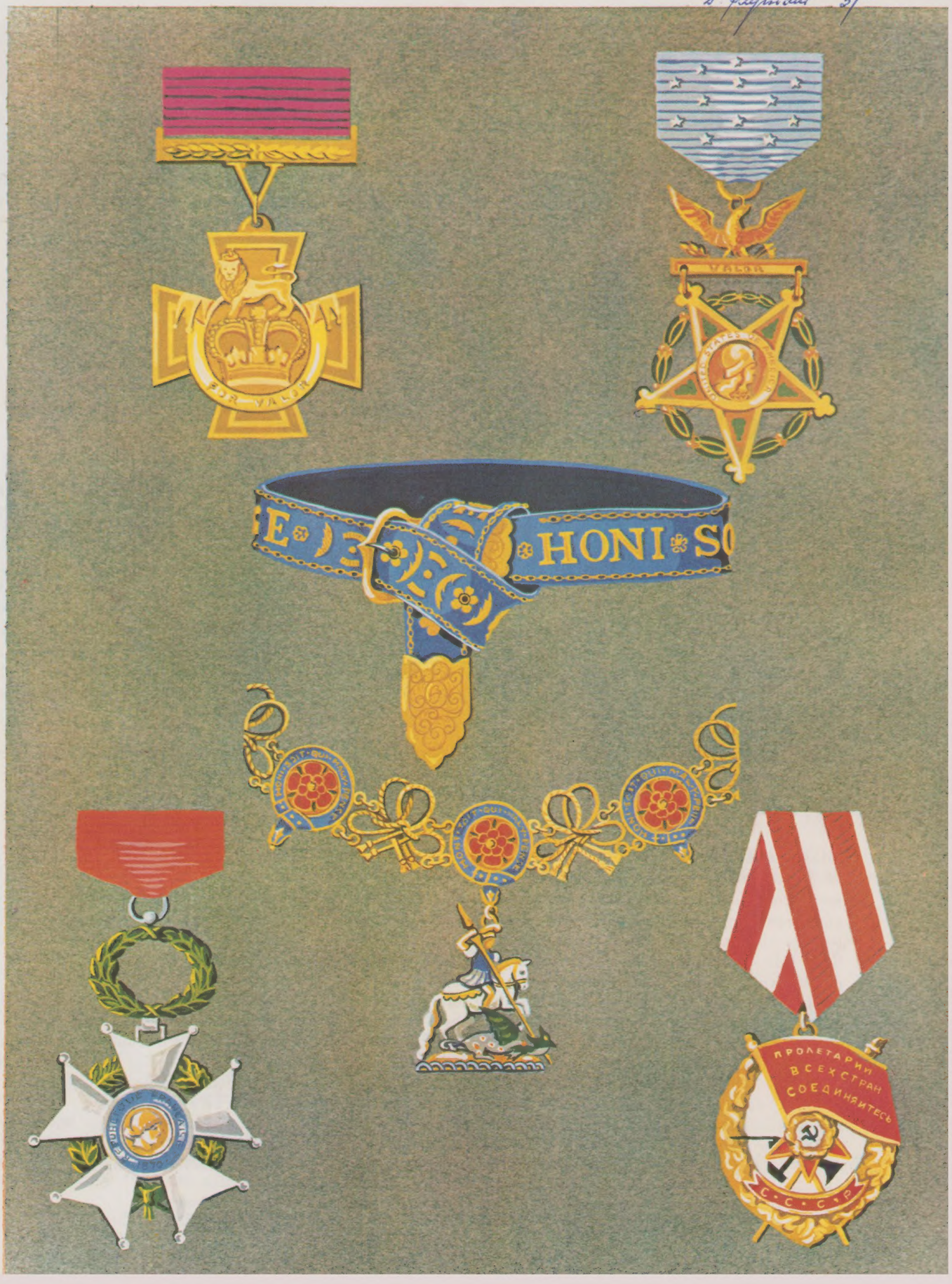
KNOWLEDGE

NO. 171 VOLUME 15 The colour magazine which grows into an encyclopaedia EVERY MONDAY 2/-



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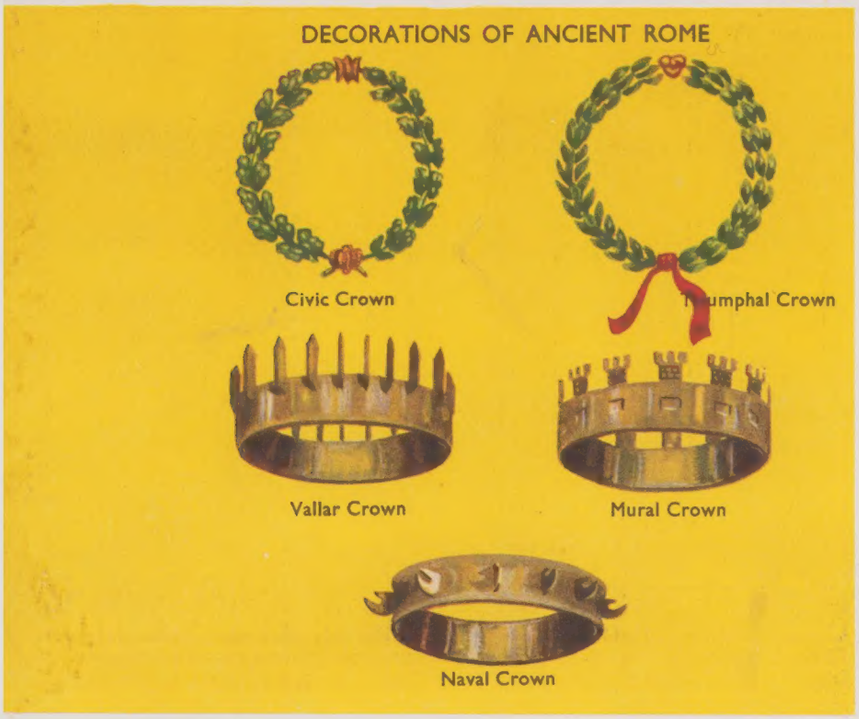
ORDERS AND DECORATIONS



SINCE the beginnings of organised society men have recognised the value of service to the community and have rewarded those who live up to this ideal. The rewards were often material ones – money, a fine horse, or a piece of land. But those which were, and still are, the most highly prized are the rewards that, in themselves, have little value. They are the orders, medals, and decorations that symbolise the nation's gratitude for acts of bravery or loyal service. In a monarchy these honours are bestowed by the sovereign, and in a republic by the government.

Classical traditions

In classical times wreaths, garlands, and crowns were won by successful athletes; and crowns, ribbons, armbands, necklaces, and rings were given to a victorious general or to individual soldiers who had distinguished themselves on the field of battle. Some Roman decorations are illustrated above. The **Civic Crown** (Latin *civis*, a citizen) of oak leaves and acorns was awarded to a soldier who saved the life of a Roman citizen during a battle. Laurel leaves formed the **Triumphal Crown,** worn by a victorious general when he rode in triumph through the streets of Rome. Gold crowns were also awarded after a battle, or campaign, for specific acts of gallantry; the **Vallar Crown** (Latin *vallum*, a rampart) was won by the first man to break through the enemy's fortifications during a siege; and the **Mural Crown** was awarded to the first soldier to scale the walls of an enemy-occupied city. When a siege was raised the general of the relief force was presented by the grateful citizens with a hastily-constructed crown of leaves and flowers, known as the *corona obsidionalis*, or **Siege Crown.** The golden **Naval Crown,** decorated with the peaked prows of Roman ships, was given to the first man to board an enemy ship during a sea battle.

As the Roman Empire declined, however, the emperor awarded many of these honours to himself, only rarely bestowing them on those who actually deserved them. The crown, which at first had no royal significance, thus became associated with the idea of kingship, and other decorations for civil and military service came into use. Of these the *falere* and the *vexilla purpurea* most closely resembled present-day awards. The *falere*, given to army officers, was a necklace from which hung heavy metal medallions; the *vexilla purpurea*, a purple ribbon or sash, was given to every soldier who took part in a successful action that added territory to the Empire.

Modern awards

Medals and decorations were not generally awarded for bravery in action until the middle of the last century, and then not until long after the action concerned. The battle of Waterloo, however, was an exception; all officers and men who fought on 18th June 1815 received a special medal a year later. All those who fought at Trafalgar (1805) were presented with medals by a private citizen, but no official Trafalgar medal was struck until 1848.

Today medals are awarded not only for specific acts of gallantry or for participation in a certain battle or campaign but also for a lifetime's loyal service to the State. Posthumous awards are those given for an outstanding action which led to the recipient's death.

Commonwealth medals and decorations

Honours instituted by the British sovereign can be awarded to a citizen of any Commonwealth country or British colony. In addition, India, Canada, Australia, New Zealand, South Africa, and Southern Rhodesia all struck their own war medals during the Second World War. Since achieving independence, many Commonwealth countries have introduced permanent awards that have taken the place of certain British ones.

When orders and decorations are worn, they are arranged in a special order of precedence, or priority, across the left breast, the highest position being in the centre of the chest. The order is: Victoria Cross; George Cross; British Orders; British Medals; Foreign Orders, Decorations, and then Medals, all in order of date of award. In 'undress uniform', when ribbons are worn without the medal, they are arranged in the same order. Medals awarded by Societies for saving life are worn on the right breast. Any award which is neither an order nor a medal is generally considered to be a decoration.

The premier order is the **Most Noble Order of the Garter,** established in 1348 by Edward III. It has only 26 members at a time – the sovereign and 25 knights. The **Most Noble and Most**

Previous page: Some famous decorations: top left, the Victoria Cross; top right, U S Medal of Honor; centre, the Insignia of the Most Noble Order of the Garter; bottom left, French Legion of Honour; bottom right, U S S R Order of the Red Banner.

GOING TO A BRITISH UNIVERSITY

Work and play at a university; left, a Cambridge 'rag day', and, below, the aeronautics laboratory at Southampton

TODAY more young people are trying to get into university than ever before. Why? There are two main explanations: the *bulge*, and the *trend*.

The bulge is simply the enormous increase in the number of children born between 1946 and 1947. The result is that there will be many more 18-year-olds alive than ever before in Britain, and the universities are just not large enough to cope with the proportion of them that wants to go to a university.

The trend is the greater willingness of young people to stay longer at school. In secondary modern schools, the fifth forms of pupils who stay for a year more than they need – that is, until they are 16 – are growing all the time; in grammar schools, the sixth forms, too, are expanding; the universities have been growing as well, but not fast enough.

But there are other reasons for the growing popularity of universities. Better teaching and better facilities in schools mean that more sixth-formers are likely to want, and to benefit from, a university education. Parents are generally more concerned that their children should have the best education that the country can provide, and this usually means, if the children are clever enough, going to a university.

The government saw some time ago that a difficult situation was coming up. In 1961 the Prime Minister asked Lord Robbins to investigate the whole problem. The conclusions that he reached, with the help of a committee, were published in 1963 – in a document known as the Robbins report.

Lord Robbins said in his report that he wanted to see twice as many students in universities and other colleges of higher education in 1980 as there were in 1963. In this year 216,000 young people enjoyed full-time education after they were 18. Lord Robbins wanted the figure to be 560,000 in 1980.

When pupils leave school at 18 there are four kinds of higher education open to them. First, they can go to one of the 30 universities or two university colleges in Great Britain and study for a degree. Secondly, they can go to a teacher-training college which has a three-year course for those who want to become teachers. Thirdly, they can go to a college of advanced technology, or a technical college which prepares students either for a degree or for a diploma in technology. Finally, there are a few schools and colleges of art where students can work for a diploma in art and design. The Robbins report suggested that the existing universities should expand, that some colleges which are not universities should become universities, and that six new universities should be built. The aim is for all young people who have the right kind of qualifications to be able to go to a university if they wish to. It is hoped that in the next 20 years 10 per cent of young people will be able to go to a university instead of 5 per cent as at present.

Why go?

If you do go to a university, what will it do for you? A degree will certainly help you in your career – either directly, by giving you a specific qualification and knowledge, or indirectly, by the benefits which the course gives. The latter is just as important as the former. As well as knowledge of your subject, you should have obtained the mental equipment necessary for important jobs: the ability to analyse, present, and discuss facts. You should have also acquired a good general knowledge, and, by your meetings and discussions with others, an understanding of different viewpoints and characters. In fact, as well as intellectual training, the university gives character training.

Seminar at Keele

Library at Oxford

Lecture at Hull

GETTING IN

Competition to get into a university is stiff. Oxford and Cambridge are traditionally the top universities in Britain, so the competition for these is even more severe, because the cleverer students will put them at the head of their list. Some colleges of advanced technology with courses of degree standard in, say, engineering do not seem so attractive, so they find themselves with some vacancies unfilled at the beginning of the year.

QUALIFICATIONS

The examinations that pupils take in their second year in the sixth form of a grammar school – the advanced level examinations of the General Certificate of Education – are used as the basic qualifications for going to a university. Students must have passed in at least two subjects, though 86 per cent of pupils going on to university have passed in more than two subjects. In fact, three-quarters of those schoolchildren with only two passes at 'A' level are likely to find that they cannot get a place at a university.

Pupils apply for a place in their second or third year in the sixth form. Each university, and each individual college within universities like Oxford, Cambridge, and London, makes its own decisions about what sort of qualifications it expects from students, based on the minimum two 'A' levels. These requirements are gathered together in two very useful publications: *University and College Entrance, the Basic Facts*, published by the National Union of Teachers, Hamilton House, Mabledon Place, London, W.C.1, at 4*s* 6*d*; and *A Compendium of University Entrance Requirements for First Degree Courses in England and Wales*, which can be had from the Association of Commonwealth Universities, 36 Gordon Square, London, W.C.1, at 8*s* 6*d*. Students can, of course, get as much information as they need by writing to the *registrars* of the universities in which they are interested. They will also be guided by the relevant teacher at their school.

APPLICATIONS

Once students have decided which colleges or universities they wish to apply to, they should write to the Universities Central Council on Admissions, 29 Tavistock Square, London, W.C.1, which acts as a central office for all university applications, with the exception of a very small number of colleges. The U C C A has produced a booklet listing the possible courses at the universities it serves, and explaining the procedure for getting into them. It does not, however, go into general and course requirements.

EXAMINATIONS

Most universities will award a candidate a place on the merits of his 'A' levels at school. Others require candidates to take entrance examinations; most also require the candidates to come for an interview. Most have special scholarship examinations which a candidate can sit for if he wishes. Places are also awarded on these examinations.

WHO PAYS?

No student need worry about not being able to go to a university because his, or her, parents cannot afford it. Grants are provided by local government authorities for students with the necessary qualifications. A pupil must have two 'A' levels and a university place to get a grant.

GRANTS

The grant the student will get covers his college fees – tuition and examination fees, for example, which are paid direct to the university without the student having to worry. The student is then given a grant for maintenance, which varies with where he goes, and what it will probably cost him to live. At the moment the maximum maintenance grants vary from £240 a year for students living at home and attending a provincial university to £345 for students living in a college, a hall of residence, or in lodgings at Oxford or Cambridge.

Parents are expected to contribute towards the cost of their children's university education according to their means. Where parents have less than £14 a week, they are not asked to make any contribution at all. If they have more than this, they are asked to contribute a proportion of the grant.

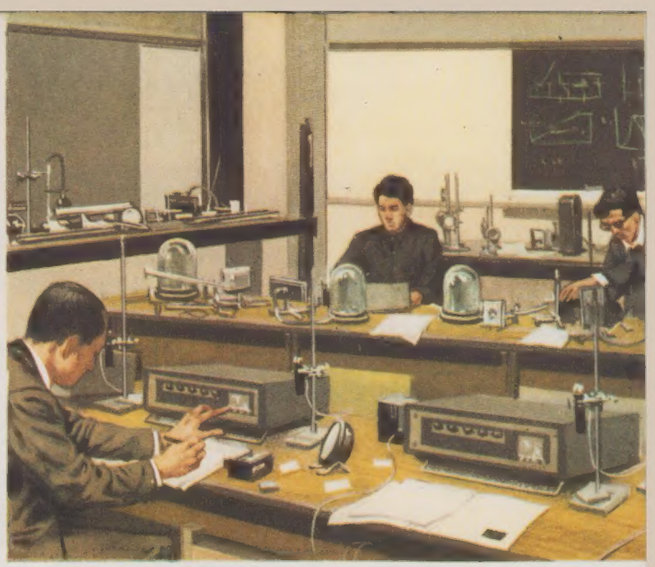
In special cases students can also hope for financial help from certain educational charities, which are listed in *Educational Charities*, published by the National Union of Students.

WHAT TO STUDY?

What subjects or subject should you study at university? It is probably best to talk about this with your teachers. Unlike at school, you do not have a wide choice, for most honours degree (see later) courses are in just one subject – for example, Physics, Chemistry, English, History, Estate Management, and so on. Of course, if you intend to be a nuclear physicist, History or Classics will not help you – nor as a rule will Physics help if you want to enter the Foreign Office. Some degrees, like those in Science, Economics, and Mathematics, qualify you for a definite job when you leave university. With Science you can, for example, get into the scientific side of industry or of the Civil Service. With Mathematics you can become a statistician, and with Economics go into market research. There are other degrees that give you a partial professional qualification – a B A in Law does not make you a solicitor or barrister, but will help you in this. (You should get in touch with the professional association you intend to join to find what exemption [relief from further examinations, for example] a university degree can give.) The only specific qualifications a general arts degree, like Classics or History, can give you is for some form of teaching or academic work. But the mental training it provides should help you to grasp the essentials of any job – in fields as wide apart as air-conditioning and journalism.

Dinner at Cambridge

Geology at Leeds



Physics at Sussex

HOW YOU LEARN

There are three ways in which a university student learns: through lectures; through discussion groups, which are called seminars; and through individual tutorials with the university teachers. In Oxford and Cambridge the tutorial system is followed. Lectures are less important, and are given to mass audiences of students from all colleges in the university. What really matters at these universities is the work a student does in his own college with his own tutor.

London University adopts a different system in some of its colleges. Lectures to small audiences of students in one department in one college are combined with seminars. Many of the provincial universities depend mainly on lectures for their teaching. And in the seven new universities recently opened or under construction, we are told, lectures will be more of a rarity. Emphasis will instead be on teaching in small groups.

ESSAY WRITING

Students doing an arts subject, such as English, History, or a foreign language, spend a good deal of their working time in reading about a particular subject and writing essays. A vital difference between studying a subject at school and at a university is that a university student is expected to organise his own work. He may have to give his tutor an essay once every fortnight, but what work he does apart from that is left to his own sense of responsibility. Many teachers take the attitude that they are providing a fine opportunity for a student to learn, and it is up to him or her what advantage he or she takes of it.

UNIVERSITY TERMS

The university year is divided into three terms, of from eight to ten weeks each, depending on the university. Students must attend a minimum of three years before they can get a degree in Science and Arts, and in some universities four; in other subjects the period is much longer – in Medicine, for example, it may be as long as six years, three of which are spent in pre-clinical work, and the remainder on the wards at a teaching hospital.

DEGREES

The degrees (the qualifications you receive from the university) vary from university to university in both their name and the time needed to take them. But in most universities the 'first degree' (that taken after about three years, as opposed to higher degrees taken after several years' work after a first degree) in Arts or Science entitles the holder to the letters B A (Bachelor of Arts) or B Sc (Bachelor of Science). Although the work required for the degrees at different universities varies, the degrees themselves are of two main types. *Pass* or *ordinary* degrees mean the passing of various subjects separately at the appropriate standards; *honours* degrees are usually taken in a specialised field, and can be only taken again if the candidate has failed. The latter degrees are normally divided into three classes, and students who fail to get an honours degree can sometimes be awarded a pass degree.

RESIDENCE

Nowadays a student is lucky if he can live in his college or in a hall of residence. Only Keele has residence for all its students. At the other universities the position varies from approximately half the students in residence at Leicester, Oxford, Cambridge, Reading, and Southampton, to one in seven in residence at Manchester, one in 10 at Birmingham, and one in 15 at Glasgow.

COLLEGIATE SYSTEM

The internal organisation differs between universities, and each university has its own way of arranging residence. In Oxford and Cambridge, where student life centres on the separate colleges of the university rather than on the university as a whole, nearly all students spend at least one of their three years living in their own colleges. York plans to run its university on the same collegiate basis. London, which is also a collegiate university, provides some college halls for students, but others live in hostels which cater for students from various colleges of the university. Even so, about two-thirds of London students have to live in lodgings.

THE UNION

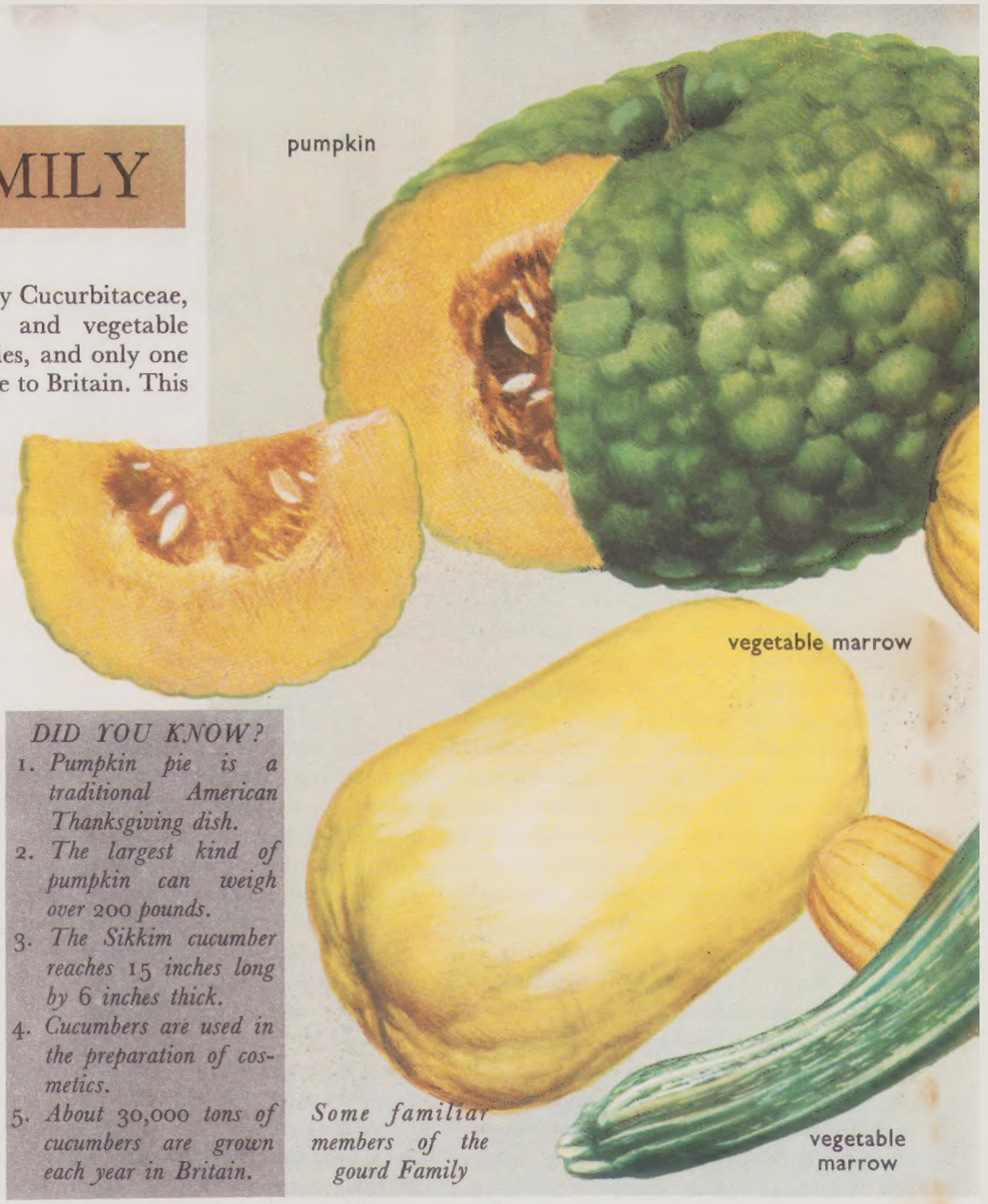
The university union – what might be called the club for all the students – is a central part of many universities. In London, for example, where the colleges are spread far and wide across London and its suburbs, it is the only place where students can get together as a university. Otherwise, they tend to mix and work with people from their own particular colleges. The London University Union is a large building, with excellent facilities, in the heart of Bloomsbury. It offers a focal point for the social life of students living in lodgings. For the corporate life of a university is a thing central to the whole idea of a university. Students learn not only from their teachers, but from each other. They air their ideas and form their opinions not only on the benches of the lecture rooms and in the armchairs of a don's study, but over cups of coffee in the union or in their own rooms.

PLAY

A university student would be foolish if he spent all his time working. There are many fascinating things to do at university. There are all sorts of societies: political societies, debating societies, literary societies, and so on. There are university newspapers and magazines run and written by students. There are theatre groups, sports clubs, dining clubs, recreation clubs, and so on. You do not have to play games at university. But, if you want to, you usually have wonderful facilities. Holidays are long, especially in the summer. You can use them by doing additional reading on or around your subject, or, equally rewarding, you can travel abroad. You can also broaden your experience by getting a temporary job in the particular field in which you are studying.

THE GOURD FAMILY

GOURDS are the fruits of plants of the Family Cucurbitaceae, such as cucumbers, melons, pumpkins, and vegetable marrows. Most of them grow in tropical countries, and only one species, the white bryony (*Bryonia dioica*), is native to Britain. This is a climbing plant, generally found scrambling over hedges; it has small, creamy-white flowers and the fruit is a poisonous scarlet berry. None of the species that are cultivated in northern Europe can withstand frost. Some of the tropical species are grown for food, and others, characterised by a hard, thick rind, are used as water vessels. For this purpose they are allowed to ripen, and then the inside pulp is scraped out. They were probably used as vessels by Stone Age man before he invented pottery. The fruit of the loofah (*Luffa aegyptica*) contains a network of woody fibres in its rind. The familiar bathroom loofah is obtained by allowing the fruit partly to rot, and then cleaning it.



Some familiar members of the gourd Family

DID YOU KNOW?

1. *Pumpkin pie is a traditional American Thanksgiving dish.*
2. *The largest kind of pumpkin can weigh over 200 pounds.*
3. *The Sikkim cucumber reaches 15 inches long by 6 inches thick.*
4. *Cucumbers are used in the preparation of cosmetics.*
5. *About 30,000 tons of cucumbers are grown each year in Britain.*

CHARACTERISTICS

Most of the plants in this Family are annuals, and grow very rapidly, creeping on the ground or climbing by means of tendrils (see page 1899). The stem is often thick and fibrous, and may be deeply ridged. The fruit, known botanically as a *pepo*, is really a large, many-seeded berry. It usually has a quantity of soft pulp, which may be edible, and a hard rind. The largest of all fruits are found in this Family; the fruit of the pumpkin may be over 7 feet in circumference and weigh more than 200 pounds. The flowers are usually white or yellow, and all five petals are joined together. Male and female flowers are separate, and may be borne on the same plant (*monoecious*) or on different plants (*dioecious*).

FLOWER OF MARROW, TYPICAL OF THE GOURD FAMILY

The female flower closed (left), and seen in section (right)

Some examples of plants of the gourd Family

Pumpkins and vegetable marrows. These are generally regarded as varieties of the botanical species *Cucurbita pepo*, and bear fruits of different shapes and sizes. The pumpkin (variety *maxima*) has fruits that are globular, or broader than long; in most varieties of marrow the fruit is longer than broad, and shaped like a sausage.

The largest type of pumpkin, sometimes called the hundredweight gourd, has enormous fruits, sometimes over 200 pounds in weight. Vegetable marrows (variety *ovifera*) are usually sausage shaped; the small custard marrows are flat and broad with rounded lobes. Three varieties of marrow are illustrated above.

Pumpkins and marrows grow well out of doors in Britain in the summer. Early May is the time for sowing in southern England, late May in the north. If the seeds are germinated indoors or under glass, the young plants can be put out about the middle of May, but it is wise to keep some under cover as a reserve in case those planted out get frost-bitten.

The marrow plant is of southern Asiatic origin. It is an annual and grows very fast; in a couple of months after germination the plant may be straggling over an area of ground 20 feet across. The stems are deeply ridged and covered with bristly hairs, and the flowers are bright orange-yellow. **Cucumber** (*Cucumis sativus*). Cucumbers are proverbially associated with coolness, and are delicious in hot summer weather, either in salad or made into sandwiches with thin bread and butter. The gherkin, used to make pickles, is a small species of cucumber (*Cucumis anguria*) native to the West Indies; young fruits of the common cucumber are often preserved in the same way. The large, dark-green cucumbers that we buy at the greengrocer's shop are either imported

CLASSIFICATION

Family: Cucurbitaceae
Order: Cucurbitales
Class: Dicotyledoneae
Division: Angiospermae
Kingdom: Vegetable

melon

honeydew melon

vegetable marrow

cucumber

water melon

or home-grown under glass, but one variety, called the ridge cucumber, is only slightly less hardy than the marrow. It can be sown under cover and planted out in early June. The fruit, which is small and very well flavoured, is pale green in colour and sometimes striped.

The plant is native to Asia and has been cultivated from early times.

Melon (*Cucumis melo*). This plant is sometimes called the musk melon, to distinguish it from the water melon, and there are a number of varieties, including the cantaloupe and honeydew melons. Melons are not hardy in a cool to temperate climate. In Britain, they are best grown in greenhouses with artificial heat, though some varieties, including the cantaloup, will thrive in unheated glasshouses or frames in warm summers. The flesh of melons varies in colour from green to orange or white; the seeds are always white. The Chinese people crack dried melon seeds between their teeth and eat the small, flattened kernels. The plant is believed to be native to India, but has been cultivated since very early times in western Asia and Egypt.

Water melon (*Citrullus vulgaris*). This is not a variety of the melon, but an entirely different plant. The fruit has a dark-green rind, pink flesh, and hard black seeds; it is very juicy and refreshing. Like the melon, it was cultivated in Ancient Egypt and is now grown in all the warmer parts of the world.

Squirting cucumber (*Ecballium elaterium*). This plant grows wild in the Mediterranean region; it was referred to in the article on the dispersal of seeds (page 1109). The fruit is green, egg-shaped, and hairy; as it ripens considerable pressure builds up inside it. Eventually it breaks away from the plant and the seeds are squirted out of the hole where the fruit joined the stalk.

Leaves and fruit of the squirting cucumber; one fruit is discharging its seeds

DOMINICAN REPUBLIC

ON 5th December 1492, during his voyage to the New World, Christopher Columbus discovered an island which he called *La Española* or 'Little Spain'; later the name was changed to Hispaniola. This island occupies an important strategic position between Cuba and Puerto Rico, and forms part of the chain of islands known as the Greater Antilles. Today Hispaniola is divided into two quite separate countries: Haiti (see page 2056) in the western third of the island, and the much larger Dominican Republic in the east. The whole island is extremely rugged, with steep-sided mountain ranges, deep valleys, and pockets of lowlands.

THE LAND AND CLIMATE OF THE DOMINICAN REPUBLIC

The Dominican Republic is dominated by the Cordillera Central, a high range of mountains covered with dense pine forests. This ridge forms the backbone of the island, and contains its loftiest peak, Pico Duarte (10,200 feet). To the north of the Cordillera Central lies a broad trough, called the Cibao in the west and the Vega Real in the east. This is cut off from the sea by a dissected mountain range, the Cordillera Septentrional, which rarely exceeds 2,000 feet in height. South of the Cordillera Central is a tangle of connected mountain ridges, which drop steeply down to the deep depression of the Cul de Sac. This appears to be a rift valley, but was, until recent geological times, a marine strait. The base of the depression, which contains a number of salt lakes, notably Lake Enriquillo, lies at 150 feet below sea-level. It is bounded to the south by yet another mountain range, which continues into the narrow southern peninsula of Haiti. In the south-east of the island lies the coastal plain of Seibo, which has only recently emerged from the sea and is composed of fertile alluvial deposits.

Although the area of the Dominican Republic is only 19,129 square miles, it has a varied climate. Temperatures depend upon height above sea-level and the degree of protection from maritime influences. The pattern of rainfall is very complicated, but there is generally more rain on north- and east-facing slopes open to the north-east trade winds. Although evergreen forests cover much of the eastern peninsula, other parts are semi-arid – for example, the southern valleys and the Cul de Sac. The latter area has over 50 inches of rain a year, but the continuous heat causes intense evaporation, so that only scrub will grow there.

AGRICULTURE

Because most of the people of the Dominican Republic work on the land, they live mainly in the two best agricultural regions – the Cibao-Vega Real trough and the plain of Seibo. The chief crop is cane sugar, grown on the large plantations of the Seibo plain. Most of the crop is exported, the country's whole economy depending on the output of the big sugar *centrales*, which are often owned by foreign companies. Other important commercial crops are cacao, coffee, and tobacco. They are grown mainly on small farms in the Vega Real, in conjunction with crops such as manioc, maize, rice, and bananas. Cattle are grazed on the savannahs of the western Cibao and in the dry southern valleys.

The evergreen forests and luxuriant vegetation of the mountainous Dominican Republic

THE TOWNS OF THE DOMINICAN REPUBLIC

The capital, Santo Domingo, was the earliest European city in the Americas. It was founded in 1496 by Christopher Columbus's brother, Bartolomeo, and contains both the oldest hospital and the oldest university in the New World. There are a number of works by famous Spanish artists, notably Murillo and Velasquez, in its 16th-century cathedral. But in spite of its ancient origins, Santo Domingo is essentially a modern city, as much of the old town was destroyed in a violent hurricane in 1930 and an extensive programme of reconstruction had to be undertaken. The new city has wide streets and beautiful parks. In honour of the President, it was renamed Ciudad Trujillo, but after his assassination in 1961 it reverted to its original name. With a population of over 462,000 it is the largest city in the Republic, and the most important centre of industry, commerce, and culture.

The Dominican Republic's second city is Santiago de los Caballeros (169,000). It was founded in the 16th century by the Knights of the Order of Santiago, from whom it got its name. It is situated in the Cibao-Vega Real trough at a point where the mountains on either side close in to narrow the plain. It lies in one of the country's most prosperous agricultural districts, and is also a centre of industry. Concepción de la Vega (La Vega, 134,000) is the other important town, situated in the Vega Real region.

Despite its ancient origins, Santo Domingo is a strikingly modern capital

COMMUNICATIONS

Communications in the Dominican Republic are hindered by high mountains and deep valleys, but a road network 3,000 miles long links the main cities and most productive areas. There are also nearly 800 miles of railway, but these are mostly private plantation lines. Regular air services connect the Republic with North and South America.

FACTS AND FIGURES

Area: 19,129 sq. m.
Pop. (1960): 3,013,525
Chief towns: Santo Domingo, Santiago, and La Vega
Language: Spanish
Religion: Roman Catholic
Chief crops: sugar, bananas, rice, coffee, cacao, maize, tobacco, and manioc
Chief industrial products: textiles, chemicals, cement
Minerals: bauxite, copper, iron ore, and manganese

INDUSTRY

maize

tobacco

Significant industrial development did not come to the Dominican Republic until after 1945. Previously, there had been only small, rural industries. Now there are a number of large undertakings, in chemicals and textiles, and the old industries, such as sugar refining and food processing, have greatly expanded. There is a small forestry industry and some mining of minerals, notably bauxite and iron ore. But the country is still essentially agricultural.

Farmers of the Vega Real tending the tobacco crop, one of the Dominican Republic's important exports

HISTORICAL DEVELOPMENT

Hispaniola was the first part of the New World to be colonised by Europeans. The Spaniards who came there forced the large native-Indian population to pan for gold in the streams, clear the forests for sugar plantations, and build towns. But thousands of these people died from disease and ill-treatment, and because of this loss of cheap labour and the attraction of the rich mines of Mexico and Peru, most of the Spaniards eventually left.

During the 17th century Hispaniola was famous as a stronghold of buccaneers, who lived in fortified settlements along the coast. In 1697 the western part of the island was ceded to France in the Treaty of Ryswick, and in 1803 became the world's first negro republic, Haiti. Santo Domingo (now the Dominican Republic) broke away from Spain in 1821, but it was conquered again by Haiti in 1822 and did not become fully independent until 1844. From then until its occupation by the United States marines (1916–1922) it was in a state of economic and political chaos. The Americans restored order, built roads and railways, and increased production.

From 1930 to 1961 stability was maintained in the Republic by a ruthless dictator, General Trujillo. Under his rule considerable economic expansion took place. The road network was enlarged; 300,000 acres were irrigated; and over 65 flourishing agricultural colonies were established. Some new villages were built near the border to prevent infiltration by poor, landless peasants from Haiti. The people of the Dominican Republic have always feared domination by Haiti, and though some Haitians are allowed in to help with the sugar harvest, there are strict precautions to ensure they return to their own country. The assassination of General Trujillo in 1961 plunged the country into political uncertainty once again. After a brief spell of democratic government, the army took over in September 1963.

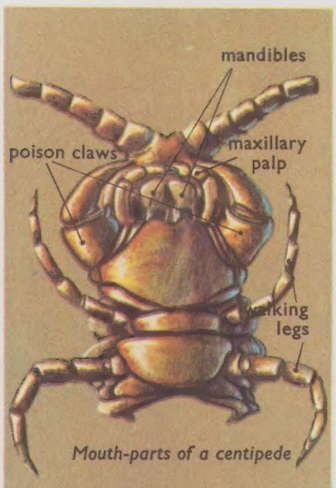
CENTIPEDES AND MILLIPEDES

A centipede was happy, quite, until a toad, in fun,
Said: 'Pray, which leg goes after which?'
This raised her doubts to such a pitch
She fell exhausted in the ditch, not knowing how to run.

Centipedes, millipedes, and many other small creatures live under stones and in other damp, moist places

IF you turn over a flat stone or a large log of wood, you will generally find a number of small creatures living under it. They hop and scurry about and do their best to find holes and crevices, in which to escape the bright light and open air. Some of them are probably woodlice, which are a kind of land crustacean (see page 2696), some the little, wingless insects called springtails (these are the ones that hop), and some will almost certainly be centipedes and millipedes, which are nearly always recognisable by their long, worm-like bodies and numerous legs.

Centipedes and millipedes are to be found in damp dark places – under stones, beneath loose bark on trees, among dead leaves, and in the soil. They dislike the light, and dampness or humidity is their most important requirement; this is because the chitin that forms the external covering of their bodies is not waterproof, and so does not prevent their body fluids from evaporating. If they are kept in a dry atmosphere they soon die.



Mouth-parts of a centipede

The poison claws are attached to the first body-segment

How many legs?

The words 'centipede' and 'millipede' mean 'hundred-legs' and 'thousand-legs'; the first name tends to overstate the case, while the second one definitely does. The fact is that the more common and familiar centipedes have 15 to 20 pairs of legs, although some of the very long, slender kinds have over 170 pairs. Most millipedes have rather more than 80 pairs of legs, and some have well over 100, but the total number never approaches 1,000.

How the legs are moved

The movements of centipedes and millipedes are, of course, entirely instinctive, but having so many legs they must obviously move them according to some sort of system. If you look closely at the legs of a moving millipede, you can see distinct, equally-spaced waves of motion passing backwards on each side. The legs are moving in just the same way as the hammers inside a piano do when you run your hand right along the keyboard. Most centipedes run with a similar action, but they go so fast that it is less easy to see exactly how they move their legs. The problem of these extremely complex movements has only been solved since the invention of high-speed photography, which has enabled naturalists to study them in slow motion.

CLASSIFICATION

Centipedes and millipedes each form a Class of the Phylum Arthropoda, which also includes insects, crustaceans, and arachnids. Centipedes comprise the Class Chilopoda and millipedes the Diplopoda. Both were once included in one Class, called the Myriapoda, but this classification is now regarded as obsolete.

The two Classes are, in fact, very distinct – a long body and a rather large number of legs are all they have in common. The most obvious difference between them lies in the number of legs on each body-segment; centipedes have one pair to each segment, millipedes two.

CENTIPEDES (CHILOPODA)

Centipedes are active, fast-moving creatures, and are predatory, feeding on insects, spiders, worms, and other small animals. They kill their prey by seizing it with a pair of poison claws, which lie on each side of their heads and are really the legs of the first body-segment, transformed to serve as jaws. Each claw is hollow, perforated at the tip, and connected to a poison gland. The bite of the large tropical centipedes is extremely painful. Centipedes have from 15 to over 170 pairs of legs, and have one pair on each body-segment.

Scolopendra (*Scolopendra cingulata*). This olive-green centipede is common in southern Europe, and grows to about 4 inches; its bite is quite severe and painful. In tropical countries there are much larger species of *Scolopendra*, the biggest of all being the tropical American giant centipede (*Scolopendra gigantea*), which may be 1 foot long. Another very common tropical species, *Scolopendra*

morsitans, reaches 10 inches. These big centipedes have a very poisonous bite. The females are very good mothers, brooding their eggs and guarding their young for several weeks after they hatch.

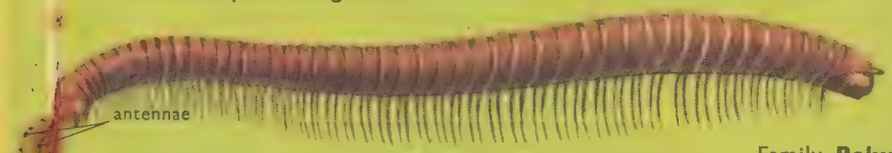
Long-legged centipedes. The house centipede (*Scutigera forceps*), a member of this group, is found in warm countries all over the world. It is about 2 inches long and has 15 pairs of very long legs. These centipedes can run extremely fast, and look rather like large, many-legged spiders. They are welcomed in houses by sensible people, as they prey on cockroaches and other insects. In tropical countries various other species are found.

Slender centipedes (*Geophilomorpha*). The scientific name of this group means 'earth-lovers', and its members are nearly all found burrowing in soil. They are very long and slender, with many short legs – often over a hundred pairs. Many of them give out a luminous fluid if they are irritated or injured. In Britain several species are found, *Geophilus carpophagus*, which is 2 to 3 inches long, being one of the most common. The North African *Orya barbarica* may reach 7 inches.

Common centipede (*Lithobius forficatus*). This brown, inch-long centipede is found in Britain under logs and stones. It is quite harmless and certainly a friend of the gardener and farmer, for it feeds on all sorts of small insects and their larvae.

MILLIPEDES (DIPLOPODA)

Millipedes are slow-moving animals that curl up in a spiral or ball when alarmed, and feed on vegetable matter. Each of the rings or segments of a millipede's body bears two pairs of legs. Members of three Families are illustrated here.



Family **Julidae.** These millipedes have long, cylindrical bodies with many segments. They are usually black or brown in colour, with a smooth, polished surface. When alarmed they curl up like watch-springs. No British species exceed 2 inches, but some tropical ones are 10 inches long. They repel their enemies by exuding a strong-smelling, corrosive liquid, but are not dangerous to man.

Family **Polydesmidae.** The bodies of these millipedes consist of only a few segments, each of which bears a flat plate on either side. One species, *Polydesmus angustus*, is often found under stones.

Family **Glomeridae,** 'pill millipedes'. These creatures, shaped rather like woodlice, can roll themselves up into a perfect ball. One pea-sized species, *Glomeris marginata*, occurs in Britain; in the tropics there are numerous species, some large and brightly coloured.

Note: the illustrations are not drawn to a uniform scale

BERNARD SHAW

'WITH the single exception of Homer, there is no eminent writer, not even Sir Walter Scott, whom I can despise so entirely as I despise Shakespeare when I measure his mind against mine . . . It would positively be a relief to me to dig him up and throw stones at him.'

One would hardly have thought that the author of this extraordinarily boastful remark was once a rather shy young man, whose efforts to establish himself as a writer had resulted in abject failure. But, in fact, George Bernard Shaw had to work hard for his success – scores of his articles were rejected by scores of magazines, and his first five full-length works (novels) were rejected by every publisher in London. Nevertheless, when success came it brought Shaw more acclaim than any dramatist since Shakespeare, and he, in turn, gave the English theatre its greatest boost for three centuries.

Shaw was born in 1856 in Dublin. He went to a variety of schools, but proved an extremely uncooperative pupil. Finding he could not learn anything he did not like, he sought, in his own words, 'refuge in idleness'. But at home he spent hours on end educating himself in the things he did like – music, literature, and painting.

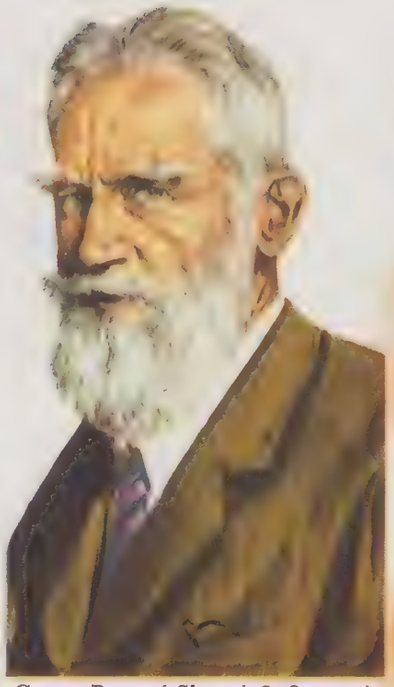
Shaw's father could not afford to send him to a university, and at 15 he became office boy to an estate agent. Five years later he went to London, where he was supported by his mother, who was a professional singing teacher.

First successes

It seems probable that Shaw, a vegetarian, teetotaller, and non-smoker, was not as expensive as some sons might have been, but, nevertheless, his mother's task cannot have been easy. He resolutely refused to find a job, and applied himself to the business of making money by his writing. It was a long business, but he was undaunted by his repeated failures. Meanwhile he spent much time studying in the British Museum, and also made a habit of attending public meetings. He spoke frequently at them, overcoming an early shyness, and in 1882 became a convert to socialism. From then on he regarded socialism as a crusade, and in 1884 he joined the Fabian Society.

Shaw's first successful venture as a writer was in the realm of criticism. He held posts as art critic, music critic, and literary critic on several papers. His method of criticism was simple – he said what he wanted, however outrageous or unorthodox. As a music critic, he gained popularity for the way he expressed his ideas in everyday language. He had quite a lot to do with the establishment of Wagner's (see page 2646) popularity in England. But it was as a literary critic that he created the biggest disturbance. He championed Ibsen, a dramatist then considered rather vulgar, and launched into an attack on Shakespeare. He denounced Shakespeare's works as lacking in any serious purpose or 'message' for his age.

Soon Shaw began to write his own plays, though without much success. His first three plays, *Widowers' Houses* (1892), *The Philanderer* (1893), and *Mrs Warren's Profession* (1893), which he described as 'unpleasant', were described by his critics as 'repellent'. Thereupon Shaw wrote a series of 'pleasant' plays, including *Arms and the Man*, *Candida*, *You Never Can Tell*, and *The Devil's Disciple*. But their immediate success was little greater, and some managers rejected them as 'unactable'. It was only in the early years of the 20th century that these plays began to attract audiences in their thousands, and to win an ever-growing popularity for their author. In 1897 Shaw fell ill. He gave up criticism, married an Irish heiress, and retired to the country. There he wrote *Caesar and Cleopatra* (which, by treating legendary subjects in modern terms, had great influence on subsequent drama), and *Captain Brassbound's Conversion*. On his return to London he began to apply himself enthusiastically to work on the St Pancras vestry (later the borough council), which involved him in such matters as disease, paving, lighting, and drainage.



George Bernard Shaw (1856–1950)

In 1904 Shaw's earlier plays, together with new ones like *Man and Superman* and *The Doctor's Dilemma*, began to be produced at the Court Theatre in London. This was the real beginning of repertory theatre in England, and established Shaw's reputation as the nation's leading dramatist.

Many critics objected to Shaw's plays. They seemed too original, and were out of keeping with the British theatrical tradition, such as it was. Where Shaw departed from the tradition was in his use of the play as a platform for his social philosophy. It has been rightly said that his comedies are half sermons. His characters often debate intelligently on such subjects as politics, society, love, and marriage, and he demanded that his audience used its own intelligence. But Shaw did far more than make intellectual demands on his audience. He also entertained it with some of the most sparkling dialogue to be found in English literature. Many examples of his wit are famous, such as: 'When a stupid man is doing something he is ashamed of, he always declares that it is his duty.' 'The British soldier can stand up to anything except the British War Office.' 'He who can, does. He who cannot, teaches.'

By 1914 Shaw had established an international reputation. He had been hailed as a great dramatist, particularly in Germany. But he had years ahead of him, for Shaw enjoyed an incredibly long and active career as a dramatist. It lasted no less than 47 years. Of his later plays the most famous are *Androcles and the Lion*, *Pygmalion*, *Heartbreak House*, *St Joan* (perhaps the most loved of all), *Back to Methuselah*, and *The Apple Cart*. His last play, *In Good King Charles's Golden Days*, he wrote at 83. Ten years later he wrote *Sixteen Self Sketches*. The following year, his 95th, he died.

Shaw will be remembered not only as a very great playwright, a brilliant critic, a philanthropist, and a tireless pamphleteer; he will also be remembered as an original and provocative thinker. His views on philosophy (contained in *Back to Methuselah*) involved the rejection of Darwin's theory of evolution (see page 1320), while *The Intelligent Woman's Guide to Socialism* (1923) was, at the time, the clearest exposition of the socialist creed to be written. When the Labour Party came to power in 1924 it offered Bernard Shaw a peerage and the Order of Merit. He declined both with the characteristic observation that he did not wish to sit in the House of Lords, and had already conferred the Order of Merit upon himself.

FIRST WORLD WAR

'ONE by one the lamps are going out all over Europe,' said Lord Grey, the British Foreign Minister. 'We shall not see them lit again in our lifetime.'

Yet the general mood which greeted the outbreak of war was a kind of jaunty optimism. It was only as the months turned into years, and the slaughter of young men began to be counted in millions, that disenchantment came with a war in which no fewer than 10 million soldiers lost their lives.

The Great War, as it is called, was essentially a land war – with the solitary exception of the battle of Jutland (see page 1022). It was fought between the 'Alliance' powers (Germany, Austria-Hungary, and, later, Turkey and Bulgaria) and the 'Entente' powers (Britain and her Empire, France, Russia, Belgium, and Serbia, and, later, Italy, Romania, and America).

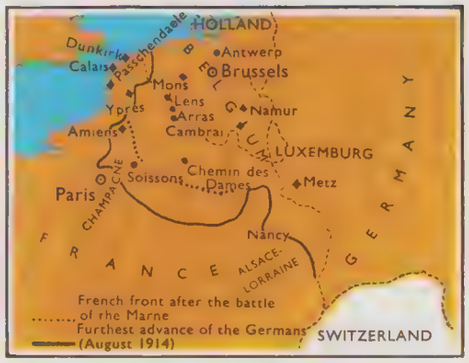
1914 – year of stalemate

No one expected the war to last long. The Germans had evolved the Schlieffen Plan, which they reckoned would defeat France in six weeks and leave their entire forces free to deliver a knockout blow on Russia.

The plan can be likened to a revolving door. It aimed at a massive sweep of the German right wing through Belgium and Luxembourg, west of Paris, and circling it from the south. Meanwhile the 'pivot', a weaker left wing, should, if necessary, fall back in the region of Alsace. Then the right wing, still revolving, would smash the French from the rear, and destroy them as they were driven back on the Moselle.

The first part of the plan went perfectly. By 20th August Brussels had fallen. The British fell back from Mons, after a gallant rearguard battle, and Namur fell on 26th August. The French were in confusion, their ever-optimistic Commander-in-Chief Joffre putting into operation 'Plan XVII', which had envisaged attacking a German push through the Ardennes which never came.

Paris was saved by the German failure to execute their plan faithfully. First the German C-in-C, Moltke, weakened the all-important right wing by sending two Corps to the Eastern Front at a vital moment (25th August). Then a German army commander, Kluck, moved east to close a gap between himself and another army under Bülow. The result was that the army passed *east* of Paris, and the encirclement was impossible.

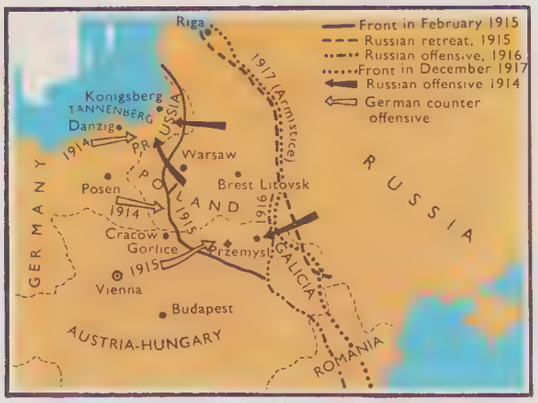


The Western Front

Seizing their chance, the French redeemed their earlier blunders and launched a counter-offensive on the Marne on 6th September. It succeeded, and between 9th and 11th September the Germans retreated to the Aisne.

With the crisis over, a 'race to the sea' followed. A heroic defence of Ypres by the British (the first of several costly battles in that region) secured the vital Channel ports for the Entente. The Entente now controlled a line from Switzerland to the sea, and set about 'digging in'. The Germans did the same along their line, and the era of trench warfare began. 1914 resulted in stalemate on the Western Front, with no breakthrough anywhere along the line. It showed the superiority of defence over attack, and a large part of the rest of the war was an attempt to find a way to overcome modern defensive positions. Methods tried, like poison gas (by the Germans), tanks (by the British from 1916), and even air-raids, proved generally unsuccessful, though improved methods of construction enabled British tanks to play a major role in the final phase of the war.

While the Western Front was being painfully established, the Eastern Front saw a dramatic reversal of fortunes. Initial Russian mobilisation was unexpectedly rapid. The Russian C-in-C, Grand-Duke Nicholas, had the betrayed Austrian war plans in his pocket, and routed the Austrians in Galicia. At the same time two vast Russian armies invaded eastern Germany. Fortunately for Germany, two great commanders, Hindenburg and his 'brains', Ludendorff, took command in time. On 26th–27th August one Russian army was routed at Tannenberg, in one of the most complete military victories of all time. Then, between 6th and 12th September, the other was routed amid the Masurian Lakes. Total Russian



The Eastern Front

losses were a quarter of a million. Taking advantage of Russia's defeat, Hindenburg marched on Warsaw. It did not fall, but Cracow and Upper Silesia, which had been threatened by the Russians, were saved. Thus in the East, as in the West, 1914 brought no decisive breakthrough.

1915 – black year for the Entente

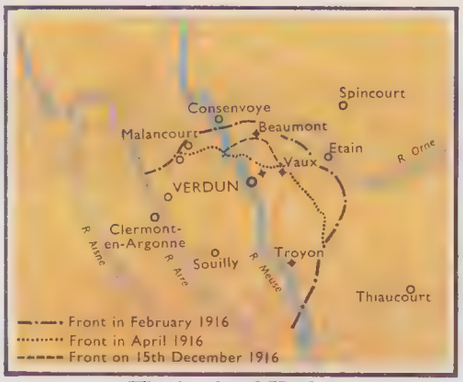
The key to Entente disasters of 1915 was that the new German C-in-C, Falkenhayn, realised that there was little point in hammering away at the solid Western Front fortifications. He therefore sought, and got, victories in other quarters. The optimistic Joffre and the rather irresolute Sir John French, British C-in-C, did not realise this. So they made fruitless pushes against strong German positions, a process of attrition which wore away the attackers roughly twice as quickly as the defenders. For example, an offensive between Lens and Arras lost the French 102,000 men, more than double the German losses in the early summer. In the autumn an offensive in Champagne resulted in the loss of 242,000 French and 141,000 Germans.

On 2nd May the Germans made a fierce attack on the Russians, and Mackensen broke through across the Dunajec river. The Russians fell back in disorder. Warsaw fell in August, and soon the Russians were expelled from Poland. Further bad news for the Entente followed. Bulgaria declared war in September, and, in conjunction with Austria and Germany, overran Serbia. Even the Italian entry on the Entente side was a disappointment. Their activities against Austria in the Isonzo region achieved almost no result by the end of the year. The cup of sorrow was completed by the failure of the British Dardanelles expedition against Turkey. Landings there in April and August proved totally abortive, and evacuation took place before the end of the year.

1916 – year of big battles

Both sides meant 1916 to be decisive. Falkenhayn got in his offensive first. He launched a massive assault on the French fortress of Verdun, hoping that all the French troops would be sent to its defence and destroyed under the weight of the German onslaught. In fact, the Verdun bloodbath was a German failure. They lost less men than the French, but Pétain, the French commander there, held out. After 1st July, when the allies launched their own offensive, the assault on Verdun petered out.

This allied offensive was the notorious battle of the Somme. The British played by far the greater role. Their resources were rapidly growing, and the imperviousness of their new C-in-C, Sir Douglas Haig, in the face of gigantic losses, shook the Germans – they had a



The battle of Verdun

new land power to deal with. All July, August, September, and into October, the battle raged, and the Germans were slowly pushed back. The Somme cost Britain 420,000 casualties, France 204,000, and Germany 680,000.

In August Hindenburg replaced Falkenhayn as C-in-C, and it was in August that another sensational reversal of fortunes shook the Eastern Front. The Russians, under Brussilov, suddenly routed the Austrians and took 200,000 prisoners. Hindenburg came to the rescue, defeated the Russians, and stormed Romania directly she entered the war. Bucharest fell, and all Wallachia, with enormous oil and corn reserves, fell into German hands.

The war had now lasted over two years. Germany was in possession of four enemy capitals: Cetinje, Belgrade, Brussels, and Bucharest. The Germans now occupied Belgium, northern France, Serbia, Montenegro, Wallachia, Poland, and large areas of Russia.

From such a strong position they offered peace, though on terms unacceptable to the Entente. So the new year began with no sign of an end to the slaughter which was destroying the flower of a generation of Europe's manhood.

1917 – another black year

The great events of 1917 were the collapse of Russia and the entry of America into the war. The Americans had warned the Germans about submarine attacks on neutral shipping. But Ludendorff decided to risk American intervention, and go ahead with an unrestricted submarine campaign. America declared war in April 1917.

1917 saw a new French C-in-C, Nivelle, whose tactical brilliance was supposed to be an improvement on the costly attrition methods of Joffre. But in April a disastrous offensive in Champagne ended in Nivelle's disgrace and replacement by Pétain. It also resulted in a serious French mutiny, which the firm hand of Pétain succeeded in overcoming. Pétain at once stopped the offensive, but Haig decided to continue with his own offensive in Flanders. All through the spring, summer, autumn, and into winter, British forces hurled themselves at the Germans. The losses in this battle of Ypres, or 'Passchendaele', were frightful.

But the Germans were thrown back; the French remained intact, though the cream of the British army, 245,000 men, lay dead or wounded in the Flanders mud.

The war of attrition. The British infantry suffers appalling losses as it advances on the Somme in 1916

The men in command when the end came

Foch, Supreme Commander

Haig, British C-in-C

Ludendorff, German 'brains'

Then, in October, came the worst news of all. The Bolshevik Revolution meant that by the end of the year Russia had made peace. The Germans were to gain greatly in territories and population, and 400,000 soldiers were released for duty on the Western Front.

The black year also brought the final collapse of Romania, and the Austro-German rout of the Italians at Caparetto. The only bright spots were in more distant theatres – the British captured Baghdad, and in Palestine Allenby captured Jerusalem.

In the face of these setbacks it was as well that the Entente was itself regenerating: Lloyd George's National Coalition (December, 1916) brought new resolution to the British Government (which had introduced conscription in May, 1916), and Clemenceau did the same for France. Above all, a Supreme War Council appointed General Foch to co-ordinate the allies, and on 14th April 1918 he became Supreme Commander.

1918 – year of victory

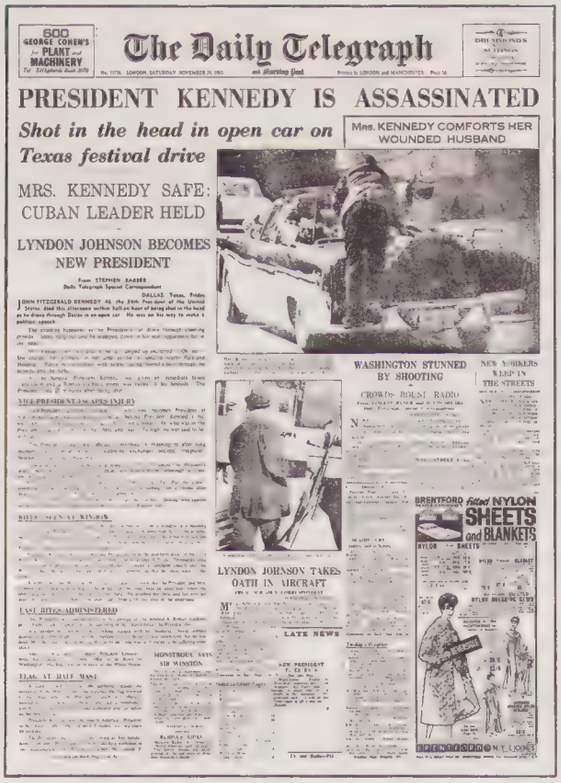
Ludendorff calculated that before American help could arrive in force he had four months of physical superiority in 1918, in which he could force a decision. On 21st March came the all-out assault. On the Somme the British were swept away, and the Germans reached the Lys.

Then, on 27th May, the Germans swept over the Chemin des Dames, took 60,000 prisoners, and made the first breakthrough on the Western Front.

To Ludendorff's amazement the irrepressible Foch counter-attacked. The French won a victory below Soissons, and on 8th August Haig struck in front of Amiens. Ludendorff was horrified. Though only 20,000 prisoners were taken, he called 8th August 'the black day of the German Army'. His hopes for a quick victory had gone. His four months were long past, and American aid was pouring in. All along the line the Germans fell back, as the allies launched four simultaneous and converging assaults. Then, on 28th September, came the news that Bulgaria had been crushed. Ludendorff's whole Eastern Front, including Austria-Hungary, had crumbled. He advised the Government to make peace. On 3rd October peace overtures were made to President Wilson, and ultimately Wilson's '14 points' were adopted as a basis for a peace treaty. Ludendorff recovered his nerve, and wanted to fight on. But everywhere the German position deteriorated. The Italians routed the Austrians at Vittoria Veneto, and on 19th October Allenby entered Damascus. In November the British pushed into northern France, having smashed the Siegfried, or 'Hindenburg', line. At 5 a m on 11th November 1918 Ludendorff signed the surrender. It came into force at 11 a m. How the victorious powers reorganised Europe after the most terrible of all wars we shall see in the subsequent article.

Ludendorff signs the surrender in Marshal Foch's caravan

ASSASSINATIONS



The Daily Telegraph

PRESIDENT KENNEDY IS ASSASSINATED

Shot in the head in open car on Texas festival drive

Mrs. KENNEDY COMFORTS HER WOUNDED HUSBAND

MRS. KENNEDY SAFE: CUBAN LEADER HELD

LYNDON JOHNSON BECOMES NEW PRESIDENT

WASHINGTON STUNNED BY SHOOTING

NEW YORKERS KEEP IN THE STREETS

LYNDON JOHNSON TAKES OATH IN AIRCRAFT

LATE NEWS

BRENTFORD fitted NYLON SHEETS and BLANKETS

On Friday 22nd November 1963 John Fitzgerald Kennedy, 35th President of the United States, was assassinated in Dallas, Texas – the fourth American President to meet his death like this. His death focused the world's attention on that most dreaded of political weapons – assassination, or political murder.

Some assassins are idealists, others murder because of a private grudge, and others because they are stupid fanatics. Some assassins have been praised for destroying tyrants, just as others have been condemned for destroying great men. But most important, assassination has had a tremendous effect on history. We are going to look at a few notable examples.

'Beware the Ides of March' has become a proverbial warning in our language; for nearly 2,000 years ago, on 15th March 44 B C, **Gaius Julius Caesar** was assassinated.

Caesar was one of the greatest – perhaps the greatest – of the soldiers of the ancient world. His extraordinary successes, and in particular his conquest of Gaul, made him one of the most powerful men of the Roman Empire. He triumphed over Pompey when a civil war broke out for the mastery of the Empire, and, early in 44 B C, he assumed the title of 'dictator' for life.

But this was too much for certain prominent citizens of the Roman Republic. They chose a leader, Marcus Brutus, and hatched a plot to kill the dictator. At a meeting of the Senate on 15th March they set upon him and stabbed him. Yet a new civil war broke out which was only ended 14 years later by another dictator, Octavius Caesar.

Caesar is stabbed in the Senate House

THE FIRST ASSASSINS

At the beginning of the 12th century the Crusaders began to bring back to Europe stories of a fanatical religious sect dedicated to the murder of its enemies. Its members became known as the *Assassins* on account of the legend that they took hashish (hence *hashishin*, taker of hashish) before their murders. This drug was said to give them ecstatic visions of Paradise so that they would welcome death. The Assassins were a branch of the Ismaili sect of Islam, and their leader was known as 'The Old Man of the Mountain', or Grand Master. In 1090 the first Grand Master seized the mountain castle of Alamut in Persia. In the course of the next ten years his followers seized numerous strongholds throughout Persia and Iraq. For a century and a half the Grand Masters directed a campaign of terror against their numerous enemies. Religious leaders, generals, and even caliphs were their victims. In the 12th century the Assassins extended their activities into Syria, and there came in contact with the Crusaders. A leading Crusader, Conrad of Montferrat, was one of their victims, and two attempts were made upon the life of Saladin, Richard I's famous opponent. All attempts to break the power of the Assassins failed. But in the 13th century the Assassins met their match in the Mongols, who, in 1256, took the hitherto impregnable castle of Alamut. The great grip which the Assassins had on Middle Eastern politics was finally broken.

AMERICA.

ASSASSINATION OF PRESIDENT LINCOLN.

ATTEMPTED MURDER OF MR. SEWARD.

(REUTER'S TELEGRAMS.)

NEW YORK, APRIL 15 (10 A.M.).

At 1.30 this morning Mr. Stanton reported as follows :—

"This evening, at 9.30, President Lincoln, while sitting in a private box at Ford's theatre with Mrs. Lincoln, Mrs. Harris, and Major Rathburn, was shot by an assassin, who suddenly entered the box, and approached behind the President. The assassin then leaped upon the stage, brandishing a large knife and escaped in the rear of the theatre. A pistol ball entered the back of the President's head, penetrating nearly through. The wound is mortal.

"The President has been insensible ever since the infliction of the wound, and is now dying.

Newspaper reports of two American tragedies: (left) the assassination of President Kennedy; (right) that of President Lincoln

Thomas Becket is slain on the steps of his altar

Few assassinations have been more revolting than that of **Thomas Becket,** Archbishop of Canterbury. He was murdered in front of his own altar by four knights. But public opinion blamed not the four knights but King Henry II. There had long been conflict between the King and his Archbishop. The biggest quarrel was over the Constitutions of Clarendon (1164), which gave the King extensive powers over the Church. For a time Becket was in exile, and after he returned another row broke out over Becket's refusal to absolve the English bishops whom he had excommunicated. Henry let it be known that he wished to be rid of 'this turbulent priest'. The ensuing murder scandalised Christendom. Becket was hailed as a martyr, and canonised in 1172. Henry II did public penance, but soon resumed exploiting the Church.

The last seconds of the Yorkist princes

Darnley – his death was a Scottish scandal

Charlotte Corday defiant after stabbing Marat

Who murdered the **'Princes in the Tower'**? Popular tradition, and Shakespeare, places the responsibility on King Richard III – the King who seized the throne and imprisoned the boys in the Tower. In 1502 a certain Sir James Tyrrell actually confessed that, on the instructions of King Richard, he had organised the murder. Yet because the princes (Edward V and Richard of York) were the true heirs of Edward IV, there was one other man who had every reason for wishing them dead. *If* they had been alive in 1485, then Henry VII, a usurper like Richard III, would have had to face two very strong Yorkist claims.

The mystery of the explosion which wrecked **Robert Darnley's** home, and of his strangled body, discovered on the morning of 10th February 1567, will probably never be explained. All the Scots blamed the powerful Earl of Bothwell, lover of Darnley's wife, Mary Queen of Scots. Whether or not Mary connived at the murder, she created Bothwell Duke of Orkney and Shetland, and on 3rd March married him. The scandalised Scots rose in revolt. Mary was imprisoned, but managed to escape to England. There she lived, a captive and a focus of Roman Catholic plots, until, convicted of plotting, she went to the scaffold in 1587.

Jean Paul Marat was a left-wing agitator who became prominent in the opening years of the French Revolution. His extremist party overthrew the more moderate *Girondins*. The plight of the moderates deeply affected a gentle girl of noble birth called Charlotte Corday, who lived in Normandy. She went to Paris, and, after writing to tell Marat that she would 'put him in a condition to render great services to France', she called at his home on 13th July 1793. Bursting in on Marat, she plunged a small knife she had bought on the way to Paris into his heart. Charlotte herself was executed for the murder on 17th July.

Spencer Perceval is one of the least known of British Prime Ministers. His premiership lasted only three years. He became Prime Minister in 1809, succeeding the Duke of Portland, and proved to be a particularly reactionary and unpopular premier. He supported the various coercion acts through which the Tories kept order, and resolutely opposed Catholic Emancipation. Nevertheless, despite his unpopularity, the nation was shocked when, on 11th May 1812, he was shot in the House of Commons by a bankrupt lunatic, with a private grievance, named John Bellingham. Though he was undoubtedly insane, Bellingham was hanged.

Perceval's death resulted in Lord Liverpool becoming Prime Minister. He is better known for the qualities of his subordinates than for any qualities of his own. Yet a man who could handle in relative harmony a Tory Party consisting of such men as Lord Palmerston, the Duke of Wellington, George Canning, Robert Peel, and William Huskisson, must be reckoned as successful as his unfortunate predecessor was unsuccessful.

Spencer Perceval is shot by a lunatic in the House of Commons

A truly great man is likely to make as many enemies as friends. At least this is true of **Abraham Lincoln,** one of the greatest of American Presidents. After displaying a certain indecision at the outbreak of the Great Civil War (1860–1865) he steeled himself to inspire the northern states to victory. His greatest triumph was the proclamation of 1st January 1863, abolishing negro slavery throughout the United States. This was put into force directly the North had defeated the South.

However, the proclamation disrupted the economy of the South, which depended on slave labour. There was great bitterness against Lincoln for his treatment of the South. On 14th April actor John Wilkes Booth, a fanatical opponent of Lincoln, and of the union between North and South, shot the President in his box at Ford's theatre. The following morning Lincoln was dead.

John Wilkes Booth fires his gun at President Lincoln's head

This explosion killed one of Russia's most progressive Tsars

It is a tragedy that one of the few enlightened Tsars of Russia should have been killed by the very people he tried to help. **Alexander II** stands out among Tsars as a progressive and a liberal. He improved education, and attempted to break the power of corrupt government officials. In 1861 he passed the momentous law which abolished serfdom in Russia and made the peasant owner of his land. In 1864 he introduced the jury system and made trials public.

But for the revolutionary 'nihilists', whose aim was the destruction of government itself, he did not go far enough. There were several plots against his life which made him increasingly illiberal. Finally, on 13th March 1881, his carriage was blown up in St Petersburg (now Leningrad).

The figure of **Rasputin** broods like an evil genius over the twilight of Tsarist Russia. The son of a poor peasant, he developed strange, debauched, and revolting ways of life which earned him a reputation as a 'holy man' in his remote, superstitious Siberian village. Introduced to the Court, he gained an extraordinary and unnatural influence over the Empress, who believed that only he could save her son from dying. Gradually he came to dominate imperial politics, and certain noblemen decided to kill him. He was assassinated on the night of 30th December 1916, and his body thrown into the river Neva.

The evil Rasputin – his influence over the Russian Empress was extraordinary and unnatural

Gandhi – the simple pacifist whose murder shocked the world

On 15th August 1947 India was divided into two independent states – India (Hindu) and Pakistan (Muslim). A long struggle against British rule was over. It had been an extraordinary struggle, for its leader was **Mohandas Gandhi,** a fervent pacifist and preacher of non-violence. His chief weapon had been the hunger strike. Gandhi had not wanted the division of India, but he did his best to make it work. Yet some Hindus took reprisals on Muslims within India itself. They had no time for Gandhi's appeals for tolerance between Hindu and Muslim. On 30th January 1948 Gandhi was assassinated by a Hindu fanatic. The death of this simple idealist caused universal sorrow.

Cavendish and Burke. Their deaths were a turning-point in Irish history

The **Phoenix Park** murders mark a turning point in Irish history. Until then Gladstone believed that the Irish problem could be solved by limited measures such as the disestablishment of the Anglican Church (1869) and the famous Second Land Act (1881). But in 1882 Gladstone's views were changed when the new English viceroy to Ireland, Lord Frederick Cavendish, and his secretary, Mr Burke, were murdered in Phoenix Park, Dublin. Gladstone persuaded the distraught Irish leader, Charles Stewart Parnell, not to resign. He came to believe more and more that only Parnell could bring peace to Ireland, and ultimately that Parnell's solution – Home Rule for Ireland – was the only possible one. Long after Gladstone's (and Parnell's) death, the British Parliament took the same point of view.

One of the world's most fateful days. The culprit is led away after the assassination of Franz Ferdinand, heir to the throne of Austria-Hungary

The afternoon of 28th June 1914 was a fateful one for the world. For **Franz Ferdinand,** son and heir of the Emperor of Austria-Hungary, was assassinated at Sarajevo, together with his wife. The assassin was a Bosnian Serb. The Serbs hated the Austrians. The independent kingdom of Serbia had kept up a constant barrage of criticism of the Austrians in its press. The reason was that, whereas there were 4 million Serbs in Serbia, there were 8 million Serbo-Croats under the rule of the Habsburg Empire. These longed to be united with their brother Serbs, and tension grew between Austria and Serbia. But this Austro-Serb conflict had wider issues. The Serbs were of the Slav race, and the greatest Slav race was the Russian. Russia regarded herself as the protector of all Slavs, and it was obvious that a dangerous political situation was developing.

The assassination of Franz Ferdinand was the act of provocation the Austrians wanted for an excuse to teach the Serbs a lesson. They made impossible demands on Serbia, and then declared war (29th July). Russia came to the aid of her fellow Slavs, Germany to that of her Austrian ally. Germany also declared war on France (allied to Russia) on 3rd August, and, at midnight on 4th August, England joined France. The First World War had begun.

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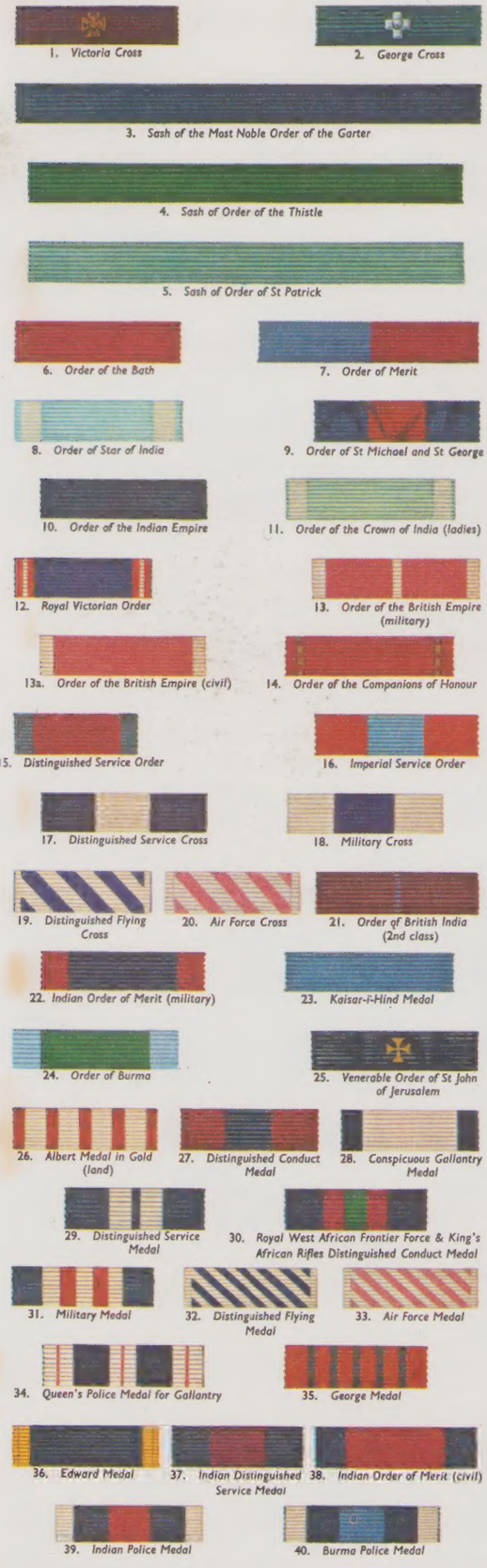
THE RIBBONS OF THE ORDERS OF CHIVALRY AND DECORATIONS

(arranged in order of precedence)


1. Victoria Cross
2. George Cross
3. Sash of the Most Noble Order of the Garter
4. Sash of Order of the Thistle
5. Sash of Order of St Patrick
6. Order of the Bath
7. Order of Merit
8. Order of Star of India
9. Order of St Michael and St George
10. Order of the Indian Empire
11. Order of the Crown of India (ladies)
12. Royal Victorian Order
13. Order of the British Empire (military)
13a. Order of the British Empire (civil)
14. Order of the Companions of Honour
15. Distinguished Service Order
16. Imperial Service Order
17. Distinguished Service Cross
18. Military Cross
19. Distinguished Flying Cross
20. Air Force Cross
21. Order of British India (2nd class)
22. Indian Order of Merit (military)
23. Kaisar-i-Hind Medal
24. Order of Burma
25. Venerable Order of St John of Jerusalem
26. Albert Medal in Gold (land)
27. Distinguished Conduct Medal
28. Conspicuous Gallantry Medal
29. Distinguished Service Medal
30. Royal West African Frontier Force & King's African Rifles Distinguished Conduct Medal
31. Military Medal
32. Distinguished Flying Medal
33. Air Force Medal
34. Queen's Police Medal for Gallantry
35. George Medal
36. Edward Medal
37. Indian Distinguished Service Medal
38. Indian Order of Merit (civil)
39. Indian Police Medal
40. Burma Police Medal

Ancient Order of the Thistle, believed to date from the 8th century, has only 17 members. George III instituted the **Most Illustrious Order of St Patrick** in 1783, but this order has now been discontinued. The **Most Honourable Order of the Bath** was founded in 1399. It now has both a civil and a military division with three classes in each: Knights Grand Cross (GCB); Knights Commanders (KCB); and Companions (CB). The **Order of Merit** (OM), instituted in 1902, is awarded on rare occasions to officers or civilians for very distinguished service at any time.

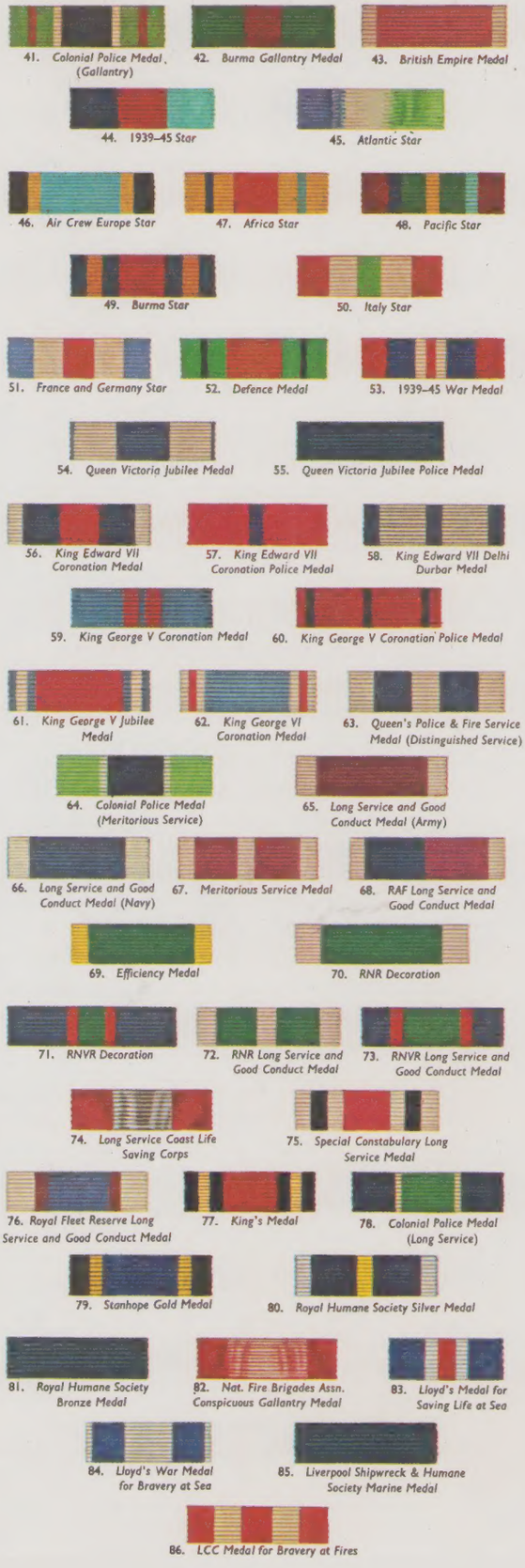
The **Most Excellent Order of the British Empire** was founded by George V in 1917 for services to the British empire by both men and women. The five classes of this order are: Knights Grand Cross for men and Dames Grand Cross for women (GBE); Knights Commanders for men (KBE) and Dames Commanders for women (DBE); Commanders (CBE); Officers (OBE); and Members (MBE). In 1917 also the **Order of the Companions of Honour** (CH) was introduced with a membership of not more than 50. It is awarded for 'conspicuous service of national importance'.

Wartime honours

The **Distinguished Service Order** was introduced in 1886 with unlimited membership as a reward for meritorious service in wartime by officers in the armed forces. Further acts that would merit the DSO are awarded a 'bar' which is attached to the ribbon. When the ribbon is worn alone, one silver rosette is pinned to it for each bar.

The **Victoria Cross** is the most highly prized of all British decorations. On 26th June 1856 Queen Victoria instituted the VC by decorating 61 fighting men for acts of valour during the Crimean War. To date 1,343 VCs have been awarded (290 of them posthumously) and three bars. Each VC is inscribed with the recipient's name, rank, and ship or regiment. The ribbon, when worn without the cross, bears a miniature replica of it.

The **George Cross** dates from 1940 and is awarded mainly to civilians; it is inscribed with the recipient's name and the date of award, and a miniature replica of it is pinned to the ribbon when ribbons are worn alone. The **George Medal** is awarded under similar conditions.


41. Colonial Police Medal (Gallantry)
42. Burma Gallantry Medal
43. British Empire Medal
44. 1939–45 Star
45. Atlantic Star
46. Air Crew Europe Star
47. Africa Star
48. Pacific Star
49. Burma Star
50. Italy Star
51. France and Germany Star
52. Defence Medal
53. 1939–45 War Medal
54. Queen Victoria Jubilee Medal
55. Queen Victoria Jubilee Police Medal
56. King Edward VII Coronation Medal
57. King Edward VII Coronation Police Medal
58. King Edward VII Delhi Durbar Medal
59. King George V Coronation Medal
60. King George V Coronation Police Medal
61. King George V Jubilee Medal
62. King George VI Coronation Medal
63. Queen's Police & Fire Service Medal (Distinguished Service)
64. Colonial Police Medal (Meritorious Service)
65. Long Service and Good Conduct Medal (Army)
66. Long Service and Good Conduct Medal (Navy)
67. Meritorious Service Medal
68. RAF Long Service and Good Conduct Medal
69. Efficiency Medal
70. RNR Decoration
71. RNVR Decoration
72. RNR Long Service and Good Conduct Medal
73. RNVR Long Service and Good Conduct Medal
74. Long Service Coast Life Saving Corps
75. Special Constabulary Long Service Medal
76. Royal Fleet Reserve Long Service and Good Conduct Medal
77. King's Medal
78. Colonial Police Medal (Long Service)
79. Stanhope Gold Medal
80. Royal Humane Society Silver Medal
81. Royal Humane Society Bronze Medal
82. Nat. Fire Brigades Assn. Conspicuous Gallantry Medal
83. Lloyd's Medal for Saving Life at Sea
84. Lloyd's War Medal for Bravery at Sea
85. Liverpool Shipwreck & Humane Society Marine Medal
86. LCC Medal for Bravery at Fires

No. 171 Volume 15

Knowledge

Printed in Great Britain by Purnell & Sons Limited
Paulton, Nr. Bristol

Published by arrangement with
Fratelli Fabbri Editori
Milan

© 1960 Fratelli Fabbri Editori Milan

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Service medals and decorations

The **Distinguished Service Cross,** instituted in 1901, was originally the **Conspicuous Service Cross.** It is the one decoration awarded only to naval officers, including WRNS officers, for wartime service. Bars are also awarded, and rosettes are worn as with the DSO. The **Conspicuous Gallantry Medal** is awarded in wartime to petty officers and men of either the Royal or the Merchant Navy; bars and rosettes are also worn.

The **Military Cross** was instituted in 1914 for Army officers (below the rank of major) or Air Force officers on the ground. The **Military Medal** is awarded to non-commissioned officers (NCOs) and men of the Army for bravery in the field, and can also be won by women for bravery under fire. The **Distinguished Conduct Medal,** dating from 1845, is a slightly higher award.

The **Distinguished Flying Cross** is for Air Force officers for 'valour whilst flying in active operations against the enemy'. It was founded in 1918 and bars can be added. The **Air Force Cross** is awarded to officers for valour while flying, but not in active operations. It may also be granted to naval, military, and civilian personnel connected with aviation. The **Distinguished Flying Medal** and the **Air Force Medal** are awarded to NCOs and men of the Air Force.

Some important foreign decorations

UNITED STATES. The **Medal of Honor** was instituted by Congress in 1861 for the Navy and in 1862 for the Army. It is awarded by the President to officers and enlisted men for bravery in action. In the event of a second award, Army personnel wear a bronze oak leaf cluster, and Navy personnel a gold star, on the ribbon.

The famous **Purple Heart,** founded by George Washington, was the first American decoration for conspicuous military service. It is now also awarded to Army personnel wounded or killed in action. Holders of the Purple Heart receive the **Oak Leaf Cluster** as a second award.

FRANCE. The **Order of the Legion of Honour** was instituted by Napoleon I in 1802 as a reward for distinguished military and civil services. The five classes are: *Grands Croix; Grands Officiers: Commandeurs; Officiers;* and *Chevaliers.*

The **Médaille Militaire** is awarded in wartime to general officers in command, or to NCOs.

The **Croix de Guerre,** established in 1915, is awarded to all ranks in the French armed forces and members of Allied forces who have been mentioned in despatches. The different classes of 'mention' are distinguished by the addition to the *Croix de Guerre* ribbon of one or more bronze palms, gilt stars, silver stars, or bronze stars.

USSR. The **Order of the Red Banner** was instituted in 1924 for distinguished civil and military services; in 1928 it was restricted to military services and the **Order of the Red Banner of Labour** founded for civil service.

The **Order of Glory** is a military decoration, awarded for valour on the field of battle.

Distinguished Flying Cross *Purple Heart (United States)* *Order of Glory (USSR)*